THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE ON EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING

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Abstract
Employees are seen as the most valuable assets of organizations in today’s challenging business world. There is a growing interest to understand the employees’ attitudes and behaviors at organizational management. Organizational justice has been an important research topic of scholars for decades. Nevertheless, the relationship of organizational justice and well-being is a developing research topic. This research aims to explore the effects of organizational justice on employee well-being. 217 full-time employees working in information technologies field in Turkey were surveyed. This study has practical implications about organizational justice perception of employees and employee well-being. The results of the research show that organizational justice has a positive effect on employee well-being. Each well-being dimension (workplace well-being, life well-being and psychological well-being) is affected by organizational justice separately. Distributive justice has been found to be related with all the components of well-being. Additionally, interactional justice is found to be more effective on workplace well-being compared to life and psychological well-being.

Keywords: Organizational Justice, Employee Well-being

Özet

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel Adalat, Çalışan Mutluluğu

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Introduction
Justice is a term, which has different formal and informal definitions. It is obvious that since ancient times humans are thinking about what justice is. These philosophical studies of justice have a normative approach. The researches about organizational justice focus on the justice perceptions of employees. In contrast to the philosophical studies, organizational justice studies have a descriptive approach. Generally, Organizational Justice has been examined in three dimensions by scholars: Distributive Justice (DJ), Procedural Justice (PJ) and Interactional Justice (IJ). Distributive Justice refers to the fairness perceptions about the distribution of the resources. Procedural Justice describes the fairness perceptions about the procedures in an organization. Lastly, the fairness perceptions about the interpersonal interactions during the execution of organizational procedures are named as Interactional Justice (Ünler and Güler, 2015).

Happiness is another term that have several formal and informal definitions. It is seen as one of the most important goals of people in most societies. Happiness is generally defined by two basic approaches. The first approach (hedonism – pleasure) is about positive feelings and enjoyment. The second approach (eudemonism – virtue) emphasizes ethical, moral, meaningful behavior and personal development. Hedonic happiness is treated as Subjective Well-being (SWB). In contrast, in studies of eudemonic approach, happiness is treated as Psychological Well-being (PWB) (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). Researchers working on the concept of happiness wanted to find a more stable mood rather than instant happiness, so they have started to use the expression "well-being" instead of "happiness". Employee Well-being (EWB) is the second dimension examined in this research. Individuals spend a significant part of their lives in working life. Employees have always seen fairness at work as an important element of an ideal workplace (Levering, 2006). All employees want to be treated fairly at their work and desire well-being in their lives and workplace. Low perceived organizational justice can result in poor employee health (Fujishiro and Heaney, 2009). However, the lack of studies directly examining the relationship between organizational justice and employee well-being draws attention. This study is based on the effects of organizational justice on employee well-being.

Literature Review
Organizational Justice
Organizational Justice is defined as the perceived degree of equity of the working environment (Folger, 1977). The term “workplace fairness” is also used with the same meaning in the literature. OJ is related with the people’s perceptions of fairness in the workplace (Greenberg, 1987b). Justice is seen as a value that is essential of the functioning of modern society (Murphy et al., 2003; p.63). All individuals desire to be treated fairly and feeling justice in the distribution of rights, benefits. While justice is so important in human history, it is an expected situation that justice in organizations has been a significant research topic for decades in the organizational science. The concept of Organizational Justice was started to come out during World War II. Stouffer, Suchman, Devinney, Star and Williams (1949) made a research about the factors that affected the soldiers’ compliance to military life. They analyzed the police officers’ and air corps officers’ satisfaction about their promotions. Air corps officers’ ranks were quicker than the police officers’. However, police officers were more satisfied with their promotions. Stouffer et. al (1949), explained the reason of this situation as the difference
of reference groups for air crops officers and police officers. Officers in air crops compared themselves with their peers and saw that rapid promotions are unfair. Relative deprivation concept was based on this analysis and seen as an important starting point for Organizational Justice literature.

**Distributive Justice**

Distributive Justice (DJ) is stated as the first category of Organizational Justice literature. It is defined as the fairness in the firm’s distribution of rewards (Deutsch, 1985). Aristotle defined the just distribution as “equality of ratios” in his Nicomachean Ethics. The earliest justice theory can be attributed to Aristotle (Cropanzano, Bowen and Gilliland, 2007). Distributive Justice concept is highly developed on Adams’ (1965) theory of equity. Adams’ theory is based on the assumption that employees expect to get high level of earnings in the return of good performance. Equity theory suggests that individuals compare the perceived inputs (knowledge, education, experience, effort, etc.) and outcomes (salary, promotions, premiums, etc.) of themselves with the inputs and outcomes of other individuals. This perception of fairness is not simply determined by the amount received, but by what received, is relative to some referent other (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1977). Equity theory is represented by the following equation: 

\[
\frac{O_1}{I_1} = \frac{O_2}{I_2}
\]

Outcomes are represented by “O” and incomes are represented by “I”. While \(O_1\) and \(I_1\) show the values of the person who make the comparison, \(O_2\) and \(I_2\) represent the values of the referent. According to the theory, “inequity exists for person whenever he perceives that the ratio of his outcomes and the ratio of other’s outcomes to other’s inputs are unequal.” (p.280). Employees evaluate the level of equity of their firms after they make the comparison of inputs and outputs. If there is no difference between the ratios of two employees’ input-output ratio, there is no problem. Folger (1986) stated that, in the case of perceived inequality, individuals try to balance this inequity. Employees will increase the input if they feel the inequity is in his/her favor. In the conditions, that employees feel inequity in versus, they will choose some different ways behaviorally or psychologically like lowering their inputs or changing their perceptions of work outcomes (Walster, Walster and Berscheid, 1978; Greenberg, 1990b). Several empirical studies have been conducted since Adams has published his theory (1963, 1965). These studies commonly indicated that employees raised their input when they are overpaid and lowered their input like performance when they are underpaid (Adams & Freedman, 1976; Greenberg, 1982). Leventhal’s (1976) justice judgment model is one other main roots of distributive justice concept. Leventhal examined the situations under which individuals employed diverse justice norms. He criticized the thought that individuals evaluate the fairness of their companies just by comparing their and their peers’ inputs with the outputs. According to Leventhal, the one who is more in need should get higher overcomes and then anyhow of the input all individuals should get similar outcomes. Greenberg (1987) evaluated Adams’ equity theory as reactive and Leventhal’s justice judgment as a proactive return of Adams’ theory.

**Procedural Justice**

The concepts about Distributive Justice had become the only concern of Organizational Justice literature until 1970s. DJ focuses on the outcomes and the reactions of individuals to the distribution of organizational earnings, but it ignores the procedures. Every group, organization or society has procedures that regulate the distribution of rewards and resources (Leventhal, 1980). Procedural Justice (PJ) concept suggests that the fairness
perception is not only determined by the perceived fairness of the outcomes, but rather the procedures used to derive outcomes are also important (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Procedural Justice concept was first developed by the studies of Walker, LaTour, Lind and Thibaut (1974), Thibaut, Walker, LaTour and Houlden (1974), and Thibaut and Walker (1975, 1978). Thibaut & Walker (1975) made some researches on legal system by examining the dispute resolution process which led to their Procedural Justice theory. They claimed that when there is a process control opportunity for individuals, the decisions are perceived to be fairer. Process control became one of the main arguments of PJ studies. Voice effect is one other argument, which was suggested by Folger (1977). Voice effect argues that individuals have more positive fairness perceptions if they have the opportunity to express their thoughts about a decision. The timing is also important in this theory. The fairness perceptions will be highest when individuals are given the chance to express their voice before the decision is made. When the chance is given after decision, the fairness perception is not as strong as in the pre-decision but still stronger than the situations that they do not have the opportunity to express their voice (Lind, Konfer and Earley, 1990). Referent Cognitions theory, which is one other main theories of procedural justice, was developed by Folger. This theory, which expands upon relative deprivation theory and equity theory, suggested integrating the aspects of Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice (Folger, 1986). Lind and Tyler (1988) developed group-value model to explain how individuals evaluate certain procedures as fair. They suggested that if individuals feel to be treated fairly by their managers in a group environment, they would feel as being respected. Besides that if individuals think the procedures that are used in decision-making process are fair in their organization, they would feel group pride. When a group’s procedures are judged fair, employees are more likely to show group-oriented behaviors and they hold better attitude toward the group and its managers (Lind & Earley, 1992). Group-value model became one other contribution to Procedural Justice. Since Procedural Justice has become the topic of Organizational Justice, it has generated a voluminous literature. For understanding the current and future directions of the field of OJ, it requires attention to pay to the historical development of PJ (Greenberg, 1990b).

**Interactional Justice**

In the early stages of Organizational Justice literature, it was conceptualized as a two-factor (Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice) model (Greenberg, 1990b). Later Bies & Moag (1986) developed a new factor named as Interactional Justice (IJ). The new concept was concerned about the quality of the interpersonal treatment that employers receive from their organizations. They defined four rules for fair interpersonal treatment: Truthfulness, justification, respect and propriety (Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional Justice refers to the fairness of the treatment an individual receives in the application of formal procedures or in the disclosure of these procedures (Bies, 1987; Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies & Shapiro, 1987; Tyler & Bies, 1990). Some researchers have considered interactional justice as a third type of justice (e.g., Barling & Phillips, 1993; Bies & Shapiro, 1987; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), while others have treated as IJ is a subset of Procedural Justice (e.g., Moorman, 1991; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Tyler & Bies, 1990). In 1993, Greenberg proposed that Interactional Justice construct into two sub-categories: Informational justice and interpersonal justice (Greenberg, 1993a). He presented this separation in his lab study (1993b). Some other scholars have also separated Interactional Justice into two categories and stated that each dimension has different outcomes (Bies, Shapiro & Cummings, 1998, Shapiro, Buttner & Barry, 1994).
Informational justice focuses on the information and explanations that individuals receive about the procedures and outcomes in their organizations. Colquitt asserted some treatments which show informational justice like managers- a) were candid in communicating, b) explained the procedures thoroughly, c) offered reasonable explanations, d) communicated details in a timely manner, e) tailored communication to individual’s specific needs (Colquitt, 2001). Item “a” and “b” come from Bies & Moag’s study (1986) while item “c”, “d” and “e” come from Shapiro’s study (1994). Some other scholars also asserted that the information should explain and justify both actions and decisions (Bies & Moag, 1986, Folger, Rosenfield & Robinson, 1983). Interpersonal justice is concerned with the social interaction between an employee and others in the workplace. Interpersonal Justice is concerned with the respect and dignity by authorities in executing procedures and determining outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001). It is stated that interpersonal justice deals with proper, respectful treatment between an individual and others (Bies & Moag, 1986). Many researches argued that interactional justice has important effects on employee outcomes (e.g., Ambrose, Seabright & Schminke, 2002; Ambrose, Schminke & Mayer, 2013; Aquino, Lewis & Bradfield, 1999).

**Employee Well-being**

Happiness is seen as one of the most important aims of people in most societies. Happiness in the sense of enjoyment is a human emotion, and most people tend to be happy in normal situation (Diener, 2000). Even though the ancient philosophers focused on the subject of happiness, this matter has only been studied recently by the science of psychology. The positive psychology approach has brought happiness and positive emotions to the forefront and has brought back negative feelings such as stress, depression and their consequences (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The topic of happiness has been studied in the last decades by psychologists and named as well-being. Well-being is explained by two main approaches in the literature as hedonism and eudemonism (Keyes, Shmotkin and Ryff, 2002 : Ryan and Deci, 2001). Well-being means having much positive feelings and enjoyment according to the hedonic approach while the eudemonic approach tells that well-being is not only instant good feelings; it is about self-recognition, self-actualization, and continuous improvement. It is studied that there can be high correlation between hedonic and eudemonic happiness (Zheng et al., 2015). Based on these two approaches, hedonic happiness is treated as Subjective Well-being (SWB) and eudemonic happiness is treated as Psychological Well-being (PWB). Subjective Well-being (SWB) - the first item of well-being - is seen as a balance between positive and negative affect and life satisfaction (Ryan and Deci, 2001; Keyes, Shmotkin and Ryff, 2002). Diener set 4 components for measuring SWB: “pleasant affect”, “unpleasant affect”, “life satisfaction” and “domain satisfaction” (Diener, 1999, 2000, 2009). Psychological Well-Being (PWB) - the second aspect of well-being - is defined as a reflection on individual engagement with, and full participation in, the challenges and opportunities of life (Keyes, 2002). PWB concept is firstly handled by Jahoda in 1958. In 1995, Ryff expanded the definition. According to Ryff, PWB consists of 6 well-being dimensions: "self-acceptance", "positive relationship with other people", “autonomy", "environmental mastery", "purpose in life" and "personal growth" (Ryff, 1995). Although some studies demonstrate the strong correlation between SWB and PWB, these variables are usually treated as distinct constructs (Campton, Smith, Qualls and Cornish, 1996; Keyes et al. 2002).
Mental health has become an important topic, for both scholars of human resources management and practitioners working in clinical and health contexts over the last decades. More recently, the positive mental health movement has extended beyond clinical settings and has found an important place in work settings (Page and Vella-Brodrick, 2009). Jahoda has reported a report in 1958 and outlined the complexity of defining mental health. Later many authors have defended mental health should be defined as the presence of wellness rather than the absence of disease (Diener, 1984; Ryff, 1989; Waterman, 1993; Ryff and Keyes, 1995). This approach is a key for employee well-being studies. In the formation of employee well-being literature, two different perspectives for the meaning of EWB are observed. Prior researches on employee well-being, focused on un-well-being rather than well-being. The effects of un-well-being like stress and exhaustion are examined. By the growth of positive psychology, many researches have been studying employee well-being under the field of positive psychology with the view that well-being is not just the absence of illness (Csikszentmihalyi, 1982, 1989; Seligman, 2002, 2011; Diener, 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2001; Ryff 1989b).

After all these conclusions, Page and Vella-Brodrick (2009) introduced a model that consists three main aspects: Subjective Well-being, Psychological Well-being and Workplace Well-being (WWB). In this model, SWB is described as life satisfaction and dispositional affect while WWB includes job satisfaction and work-related affect. Employees’ well-being is critical to the survival and development of organizations around the world (Spreitzer & Porath, 2012). The happiness, well-being and their interaction with the satisfaction of the employees’ have become a discussion in the literature.

Hypothesis Development
Organizational Justice and Employee Well-being
Organizational justice has been studied by scholars and researchers for more than three decades. Studies have shown that there is a close relationship between organizational justice perceptions and some other organizational management concepts. Efforts to explain the effective impact of organizational justice have become a topic of organizational justice discipline (Greenberg, 1987; 1990b). Organizational justice perceptions have been related to work related attitudes and behaviors such as performance, withdrawal, commitment and job satisfaction (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013; Rupp, Shao, Jonesi & Liao, 2014). Low justice perceptions of employees are considered as a source of stress (Vermunt & Steensma, 2001). Stress at work causes health problems and strain (Ganzel, Morris & Wethington, 2010). It is also found that continuous stress can have negative outcomes on employees’ physical and mental systems (Ganster & Rosen, 2013; Juster et al., 2011). Lind and Tyler have also discussed that organizational justice is important for building and maintaining of trust (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Lack of trust causes uncomfortable employees and low performance of employees’. It is asserted that all the dimensions of organizational justice predict trust (Colquitt et al., 2001). Studies about the relationship between organizational justice and health have been increased from starting 2000 and comparatively little is known about the impact of organizational justice on health outcomes (Elovainio et al., 2013). In recent years, some studies have emphasized the impact of organizational justice on the health and well-being of employees. These studies have shown that organizational justice have effect on different health indicators like well-
being, burnout or sickness absence (Ndjaboue, Brisson & Vezina, 2012; Robbins, Ford & Tetrick, 2012). It has been noted that low organizational justice increases the risk of sickness absence. Taken together all these impact of organizational justice on other organizational outcomes, it is predicted that high justice perceptions of employees’ have a positive effect on all the aspects of well-being examined in this study; life well-being, workplace well-being and psychological well-being. Consequently, following hypotheses are asserted:

H1: Organizational Justice has a positive effect on Life Well-being.
H2: Organizational Justice has a positive effect on Workplace Well-being.
H3: Organizational Justice has a positive effect on Psychological Well-being

Distributive Justice and Employee Well-being
Distributive justice, the oldest dimension of organizational justice literature, has been found associated with many organizational outcomes. DJ has been found strongly related with job performance. Decrement in performance is observed when employees have low distributive justice perceptions (Adams &Freedman, 1976; Greenberg, 1982). Prior researches about the relationship between distributive justice and well-being have contradictory results. Several studies support the thought that employees who perceive distributive injustice frequently have work-related health problems and they seek sickness absence from work (de Boer et al., 2002; Ybema and van den Bos, 2010). On the other hand, there are some researches which have expressed that distributive justice has no effect or weak effects on employees’ well-being (Judge and Colquitt, 2004; Moliner et al., 2008). Adams’ equity theory suggests that when individuals perceive injustice at their work, they feel dissatisfied. Greenberg (2004) has indicated that perceived injustice is a source of stress for individuals. Distributive justice is seen as a predictor of personal well-being (Paz et al., 2009; Kool &Van Dierendonck, 2012; Robbins et al., 2012). DJ has also been found related with citizenship behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2001; Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). In spite of contradictory results, Adams’ equity theory claims a positive relationship between the high justice perceptions of employees’ well-being. In this study, based on the Adams’ equity theory and other researches, which show the relationship between distributive justice and employee well-being, it is predicted that distributive justice has a positive effect on employee well-being. Then, following hypotheses are asserted:

H1a: Distributive Justice has a positive effect on Life Well-being.
H2a: Distributive Justice has a positive effect on Workplace Well-being.
H3a: Distributive Justice has a positive effect on Psychological Well-being.

Procedural Justice and Employee Well-being
Procedural justice refers to the fairness of procedures in organizations. There are several studies examined the outcomes of procedural justice. Job satisfaction is one of the main positive outcomes of individuals’ attending the decision making process in their organizations (Lange, 2015). Lind and Tyler’s group-value model exists in some conclusions for the psychological impact of procedural justice on employees. Individuals, who feel fair treatment in their organizations, feel proud of being a group member. If employees think the procedures at their work have just, they feel as a member of the group. This justice perception increases job satisfaction and well-being of employees.
(Huong, Zheng & Fujimoto, 2016). Conversely, low procedural justice perceptions can reveal negative evaluations about one's value and self-esteem (Tyler & Blader, 2003). Employees predict the decisions at their work according to the procedures and rules. Low procedural justice perceptions can cause uncertainty and stress. Procedural Justice’s relationship with employee health has been shown by prior studies (Elovainio et al., 2001, 2005; Judge and Colquitt, 2004; Kausto et al., 2005). Taken together all these studies, it is predicted that procedural justice has a positive effect on all the dimensions of employee well-being. Then, following hypotheses are asserted:

H1b: Procedural Justice has a positive effect on Life Well-being.
H2b: Procedural Justice has a positive effect on Workplace Well-being.
H3b: Procedural Justice has a positive effect on Psychological Well-being.

Interactional Justice and Employee Well-being
Interactional justice is more related to the quality of the relationship of the employees with their managers. Employees pay attention to how they are treated. Organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational citizenship, motivation, commitment, trust, stress, performance are found related to interactional justice (e.g. Greenberg & Colquitt, 2013). Moorman noted that interactional justice is positively associated with organizational citizenship and job satisfaction (Moorman, 1991). Employees who have high levels of interactional fairness perceptions about their work also show a high degree of commitment (Fischer and Smith, 2006).

Justice is a basic psychological need of individuals. Cropanzano et al. examined the relationship between justice theories and basic psychological needs and pointed out that justice serves to an important psychological need for control, belonging and meaning (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Greenberg has also discussed that informational justice can have long-term impacts (Greenberg, 2004). Interpersonal justice is also found in association with work-related stress (Judge and Colquitt, 2004). Stress is found to be related with the psychological health of employees (Ganster and Rosen, 2013; Juster et al., 2011). Based on these hypothetical studies about the effects of interactional justice, it is predicted that high interactional justice perceptions increase all the dimensions of employee well-being. In the sum, following hypotheses are asserted:

H1c: Interactional Justice has a positive effect on Life Well-being.
H2c: Interactional Justice has a positive effect on Workplace Well-being.
H3c: Interactional Justice has a positive effect on Psychological Well-being.

**Research Design and Methodology**

**Research Model**
The research model and the hypotheses are shown in Figure 1.
Participants
Convenience sampling method is used in the research. This is a nonprobability sampling type. Collection of data has been finished in 1 month. The respondents 217 people who are working for 23 different companies. Assurance of anonymity was important to increase the participation and get more responses that are truthful. The research is made with 217 employees. All the participants are working in Information Technology field in Turkey. The scale of the answers was from 1 “Completely disagree” to 5 “Completely agree.” Number of male participants was 154 (71 %) and female was 63 (29 %). Respondents were between 23 and 50 years of age. Median age of the whole group was 33. 211 of participants (97.2 %) have at least undergraduate degrees. Average professional experience was 10.6. Average employment duration of the respondents in their current companies was 6.7 years. Average employment duration of the respondents in their current positions was 3.9 years.

Procedure and Measures
In this study, data analysis and hypotheses testing were made with the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software (Release 20.0.0) for descriptive statistics (frequency, means, and standard deviations), reliability, correlations and exploratory factor analysis. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) technique is used (Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Path Analysis) for hypothesis testing and model fit. SEM analyses were made by IBM SPSS AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) software (20.0.0 Build 817).

This research is based on subjective responses of employees. Respondents gave answers to questions about Organizational Justice and Employee Well-being according to the perceptions of themselves. One measure for Organizational Justice and one measure for Employee Well-being were used in the study. The measures were selected from the literature, which have been already used in released publications. For Organizational Justice, Niehoff and Moorman (1993) scale is used. This scale has a Turkish translation by Yıldırım (2002) which is used for Turkish questionnaires. For Employee Well-being Zheng et al.’s (2015) scale is used which has a Turkish translation by Duyar (2018).
In this study, Organizational Justice questionnaire’s Cronbach’s alpha is .951 for total 217 respondents (DJ = .859; PJ = .870; IJ = .941). Employee Well-being questionnaire’s Cronbach’s alpha is .879 where LWB $\alpha = .860$; WWB $\alpha = .853$, and PWB $\alpha = .715$.

**Results**

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations and correlations for the variables in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Distributive Justice</th>
<th>Procedural Justice</th>
<th>Interactional Justice</th>
<th>Overall Justice</th>
<th>Life Well-being</th>
<th>Workplace Well-being</th>
<th>Psychological Well-being</th>
<th>Employee Well-being</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>.556**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Justice</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>.595**</td>
<td>.765**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Justice</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>.776**</td>
<td>.892**</td>
<td>.935**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Life Well-being</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>.727**</td>
<td>.212**</td>
<td>.216**</td>
<td>.260**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Well-being</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>.535**</td>
<td>.500**</td>
<td>.547**</td>
<td>.600**</td>
<td>.452**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Well-being</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>.295**</td>
<td>.231**</td>
<td>.247**</td>
<td>.288**</td>
<td>.499**</td>
<td>.424**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Well-being</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>.468**</td>
<td>.402**</td>
<td>.430**</td>
<td>.489**</td>
<td>.828**</td>
<td>.803**</td>
<td>.761**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level**

**Validity and Reliability of the Constructs**

Exploratory factor analysis and Confirmatory factor analysis are used for the measures in order to control the construct validity of the scales. Exploratory factor analysis shows the variables are distributed as shown in the original scales. Confirmatory factor analysis presented results showing the constructs are measured as intended. Convergent and discriminant validity of the constructs are measured with AVE (Average Variant Extracted), CR (Construct Reliability) and MSV (Maximum Shared Variance). According to these calculations all construct except Employee Well-being have convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity and discriminant validity may be an issue between the latent variables of Employee Well-being scale. Convergent and discriminant validity analyses are done for employee well-being scale in the literature (Zheng et al., 2015); and mentioned the scale has those types of validity. However, AVE and MSV values indicate some problems with the data of this study. While the calculated values are close to described threshold values, this construct (EWB) continued to be used in this study. In the hypothesis-testing phase, Life WB, Workplace Well-being and Psychological WB are treated as independent variables. According to hypothesized model, multicollinearity VIF values are examined between independent variables and dependent variables. Since VIF values are less than 3, no multicollinearity issue is observed in this study.
Hypothesis Testing
For the model with the variables Organizational Justice and Life Well-being, the goodness of fit indices indicate an acceptable model (CMIN/DF=1.358, RMR=0.047, GFI=0.874, AGFI=0.848, TLI=0.963, CFI=0.967). According to the regression weights and the p-values on Table 2, hypothesis H1 “Organizational Justice has a positive effect on Life Well-being” is supported (p = .000).

Table 2: Regression Weights For Organizational Justice And Life Well-Being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>1.432</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td>7.641***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Justice &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>1.313</td>
<td>.168</td>
<td>7.826***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life WB &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>.364</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>3.492***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the model with the variables Organizational Justice sub-dimensions and Life Well-being, the goodness of fit indices indicate an acceptable model (CMIN/DF=1.354, RMR=0.045, GFI=0.875, AGFI=0.848, TLI=0.964, CFI=0.968). According to the regression weights and the p-values on Table 3 hypothesis H1a “Distributive Justice has a positive effect on Life Well-being,” is supported (with p-value = .042). Hypothesis H1b “Procedural Justice has a positive effect on Life Well-being.” and H1c “Interactional Justice has a positive effect on Life Well-being.” are not supported (with p-values = .677 and .298).

Table 3: Regression Weights For Organizational Justice Sub-Dimensions And Life Well-Being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Life Well-being    &lt; Distributive Justice</td>
<td>-.067</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>-.416</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Well-being    &lt; Procedural Justice</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>2.038</td>
<td>.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Well-being    &lt; Interactional Justice</td>
<td>0.179</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td>.298</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the model with the variables Organizational Justice and Workplace Well-being, the goodness of fit indices indicate an acceptable model (CMIN/DF=1.541, RMR=0.045, GFI=0.861, AGFI=0.831, TLI=0.947, CFI=0.953). According to the regression weights and the p-values on Table 4, hypothesis H2 “Organizational Justice has a positive effect on Workplace Well-being.” is supported (p = .000).

Table 4: Regression Weights For Organizational Justice And Workplace Well-Being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>1.361</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>7.935***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Justice &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>1.265</td>
<td>.152</td>
<td>8.300***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace WB &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>5.929***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the model with the variables Organizational Justice sub-dimensions and Workplace Well-being, the goodness of fit indices indicate an acceptable model (CMIN/DF=1.490, RMR=0.048, GFI=0.863, AGFI=0.832, TLI=0.952, CFI=0.958). According to the
regression weights and the p-values on Table 5 hypothesis H2a “Distributive Justice has a positive effect on Workplace Well-being.” is supported (with p-value = .000). Hypothesis H2b “Procedural Justice has a positive effect on Workplace Well-being.” is not supported (with p-value = .560). H1c “Interactional Justice has a positive effect on Workplace Well-being.” is supported (with p-value = .008).

Table 5: Regression Weights For Organizational Justice Sub-Dimensions And Workplace Well-being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Well-being &lt; Distributive Justice</td>
<td>-.241</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>4.191</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Well-being &lt; Procedural Justice</td>
<td>-.051</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>-.538</td>
<td>.560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Well-being &lt; Interactional Justice</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>2.650</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the model with the variables Organizational Justice and Psychological Well-being, the goodness of fit indices indicate an acceptable model (CMIN/DF=1.456, RMR=0.061, GFI=0.867, AGFI=0.839, TLI=0.949, CFI=0.955). According to the regression weights and the p-values on Table 6, hypothesis H3 “Organizational Justice has a positive effect on Psychological Well-being.” is supported (p = .010).

Table 6: Regression Weights For Organizational Justice And Psychological Well-Being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>1.428</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td>7.642</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Justice &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>1.302</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>7.814</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological WB &lt; Organizational Justice</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>2.578</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the model with the variables Organizational Justice sub-dimensions and Psychological Well-being, the goodness of fit indices indicate an acceptable model (CMIN/DF=1.433, RMR=0.060, GFI=0.871, AGFI=0.841, TLI=0.952, CFI=0.957). According to the regression weights and the p-values on Table 7 hypothesis H3a “Distributive Justice has a positive effect on Psychological Well-being.” is supported (with p-value = .005). Hypothesis H3b “Procedural Justice has a positive effect on Psychological Well-being.” and H3c “Interactional Justice has a positive effect on Psychological Well-being.” are not supported (with p-values = .400 and .497).

Table 7: Regression Weights For Organizational Justice Sub-Dimensions And Psychological Well-Being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Well-being &lt; Distributive Justice</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>2.835</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Well-being &lt; Procedural Justice</td>
<td>-.081</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>-.842</td>
<td>.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Well-being &lt; Interactional Justice</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>.679</td>
<td>.497</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion
Discussion
As an overall finding, the studies show that positive fairness perceptions of employees’ increase Employee Well-being positively. After literature review, it is asserted in this study that Organizational Justice has a positive effect on Employee Well-being. Hypotheses testing results have shown that Organizational Justice has positive effect on all the aspects of Employee Well-being (Life Well-being, Workplace Well-being, Psychological Well-being). These results are parallel with literature (Elovainio et al., 2001, 2005; Judge and Colquitt, 2004; Kausto et al., 2005). Distributive Justice, the earliest concept of Organizational Justice literature, have been discussed since 1960s. Many scholars have found that Distributive Justice is strongly related to several organizational work outcomes like organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, job satisfaction and well-being (de Boer et al., 2002; Ybema and van den Bos, 2010, Colquitt et al., 2001; Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). In this study, Distributive Justice is expected to have a positive effect on all the well-being dimensions (Life Well-being, Workplace Well-being, Psychological Well-being) proposed by Zheng (2015). According to the hypotheses testing, it is found that Distributive Justice has a positive effect on Life Well-being, Workplace Well-being and Psychological Well respectively. Procedural Justice, the judgments about the fairness of processes in an organization, is the second main concept of Organizational Justice literature. Many researchers have found out that Procedural Justice and Interpersonal Justice have stronger effects on Employee Well-being than Distributive Justice (e.g., Huang, Zheng and Fujimoto, 2016; Judge and Colquitt, 2004). It is expected in this study that Procedural Justice has a positive effect on Employee Well-being (Life Well-being, Workplace Well-being, Psychological Well-being). However, according to the results, Procedural Justice does not have direct effect on Employee Well-being. Interactional Justice, the latest dimension of Organizational Justice literature, focuses on the quality and degree of the interactions that employees experience from their managers. (Bies and Moag, 1986). Several researches have shown that Interactional Justice has strong effects on employees’ perception of stress at work (Judge and Colquitt, 2004; Moliner et al., 2008). Thus, Interactional Justice is expected to have a positive effect on Employee Well-being in this study. The results of the hypotheses testing have shown that Interactional Justice has positive effect on Workplace Well-being. On the other hand, it is found that Interactional Justice has no direct effect on Life Well-being and Psychological Well-being. This result shows the importance of the quality communication especially between the first level managers and the employees.

Theoretical Contributions
Before the year 2000, there were just two published articles about the relationship between organizational justice and employee health (i.e., Schmitt & Dorfel, 1999; Zohar, 1995). After 2000s, the literature about the association between organizational justice and well-being started to grow. Many articles including the first epidemiological study (e.g., Elovainio, Kivimaki, & Helkama, 2001) about organizational justice and employee health have been published (Fujishiro and Heaney, 2009). “Perhaps the greatest strength of justice research is in its potential for improving the effectiveness of work organizations while simultaneously improving the lives of employees” (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). This study supports the literature by highlighting the importance of distributive justice, but contradict with previous studies by saying procedural justice has no effect on none of
the well-being dimensions even on workplace well-being. The results of this research also show Interactional justice’s effect is limited only on the workplace aspect of well-being.

Managerial Implications
This study shows the effect and importance of Organizational Justice on Employee Well-being. A manager’s success and effectiveness can be evaluated with many factors. The results get by the empirical data of this study show that organizational justice has a significant effect on employee well-being. Thus, managers should consider justice from many perspectives. Employees with high justice perception about their work can be happier. Moreover, happy workers are assumed productive workers (Staw, 1986). Managers should be aware that increasing justice level in the organizations would increase employees’ well-being level. As mentioned in the literature part, organizational justice is not just about the equality of ratios that shows distributive justice. Procedural justice and interactional justice are also critical to evaluate the fairness of organizations. All human resources applications like selection procedures, reward systems, conflict management, layoffs and performance appraisals point out the existence of organizational justice (Cropanzano, Bowen and Gilliland, 2013). Therefore, it is important to evaluate all these processes together for managers and employees. The significant effect of interactional justice on work well-being shows the important responsibility of managers.

Limitations and Future Research
This study has some limitations like many researches. These limitations may inhibit the generalizability of the results. For instance, the scales used in the study measure the subjective responses of the respondents. This research is conducted in Turkey with 217 respondents. Similar studies in different countries can have different results. Different cultures can generate different outcomes for the model of this study. All the employees in this study are working in information technology field. Different outcomes can be obtained when the same studies are conducted in different sectors. All the respondents are team members and they are mostly engineers focused on their technical competencies. Future research can be applied to samples where line managers are also included in the participant lists. Participants from other departments (sales, human resources, finance etc.) In this situation, different results may be obtained where soft skills may play a more important role.

References


normative rules, moral accountability, bandwidth-fidelity, and social exchange. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 123, 159-185.


